

1 **Modification of bedrock surfaces by glacial abrasion and quarrying: evidence from**
2 **North Wales**

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16

17 **Abstract**

18 Abrasion and quarrying are significant processes of subglacial erosion for ice masses in direct
19 contact with hard substrates, yet their relative efficacy and spatio-temporal variability is
20 unclear. Here, we investigate the glacial impact of these processes on a 70 m by 60 m bedrock
21 surface at Moel Ysgyfarnogod in the Rhinog Mountains, Wales, using a combination of high-
22 resolution digital photographs, analysis of a Digital Terrain Model derived from an Unmanned
23 Aerial Vehicle survey, and regional ice sheet modelling. We map and analyze the distribution
24 of grooved and striated surfaces, abraded surfaces, quarried blocks and open fractures in
25 addition to the orientation of pre-existing bedrock fractures and joints. The grooves and

26 striations are orientated in a single, consistent direction across the bedrock surfaces related to
27 regional ice flow during the Late Pleistocene. Abraded and smoothed bedrock dominates the
28 proximal edges of the bedrock outcrop and quarrying prevails on the distal edges of the bedrock
29 outcrop, which are dominated by detached and partially detached blocks. We propose these
30 blocks were removed during the final stages of the last glacial cycle when subglacial meltwater
31 was plentiful in this otherwise predominantly frozen subglacial setting. A minimum estimate
32 of 2000 m³ displaced material at this site implies that subglacial quarrying would have been an
33 important erosional process during final stages of deglaciation.

34

35 **Key Words**

36 Glacial erosion, subglacial bedrock surfaces, abrasion, quarrying

37

38 **Introduction**

39

40 Throughout the multiple ice age cycles that characterise the last ~2.6 Ma, subglacial erosion
41 has had a profound influence on temperate and polar landscapes of both hemispheres (Sugden
42 and John, 1976; Cook et al., 2020). Two of the single most important processes of glacial
43 erosion beneath warm-based glaciers and ice sheets resting on hard beds are abrasion and
44 quarrying. Abrasion describes the wear of a rock surface by rock debris in transport in basal
45 ice (Hallet, 1979, 1996; Cohen et al., 2005) and produces elongated, streamlined landforms
46 with smoothed and ice-abraded surfaces (Evans, 1996; Roberts and Long, 2005). Quarrying
47 describes the processes involved in the detachment and removal of blocks of bedrock (Glasser
48 and Bennett, 2004). It has been suggested that abrasion may dominate over other erosional
49 processes beneath fast-flowing glaciers (Herman et al., 2015; Yanites and Ehlers, 2016),

50 however, quarrying is arguably the more important of the two processes because it provides
51 the basal material required for glacial abrasion (Alley et al., 2019).

52

53 Quarrying theory defines the basal conditions that favour the growth of cracks in otherwise
54 coherent bedrock (Iverson, 1991; Hallet, 1996). In addition to the role of basal sliding, which
55 supplies the frictional energy, the important relationships are those of effective pressure of ice
56 on the bed (ice overburden load minus subglacial water pressure) and the primary role of ice-
57 bed cavities, usually in the lee of a rock step. The presence of cavities has the effect of
58 concentrating stresses on rock protuberances. Under certain conditions, high effective ice
59 pressures can hydraulically fracture and open existing or new micro-cracks normal to ice flow,
60 and allow the removal of blocks of rock. Rapidly fluctuating water pressures in such cracks
61 enhances fracture propagation and quarrying, which has been demonstrated by several
62 empirical and theoretical studies (Iverson, 1991; Hallet, 1996; Cohen et al., 2005; Bartholomew
63 et al. 2011; Anderson, 2014; Ugelvig et al., 2018). Diurnal and seasonal melt variations, and
64 thus subglacial water pressure, can have an even more pronounced effect on the rates of
65 quarrying since of the temporal amplification of differential bedrock stress around cavities and
66 promotion of crack growth (Ugelvig et al., 2018). The imbalance between cavity size and water
67 pressure drives episodes of elevated stress on the upglacier edges of steps in the bed, the so-
68 called “hammer effect” by Anderson (2014), which is potentially of importance also for the
69 quarrying rates integrated over longer periods (Ugelvig et al., 2018). According to Anderson
70 (2014) thicker ice will generate a greater frequency of hammer events and thus is more effective
71 at quarrying than thinner ice due to increased short-term oscillations in the sliding system.
72 Stick-slip motion may also play a role in subglacial erosion (Zoet et al., 2013).

73

74 There are well-established links between lithology, bedrock structure and the geometry of
75 glacial erosional landforms (Glasser et al., 1998). The importance of pre-existing fractures for
76 quarrying processes is confirmed by field observations (Jahns, 1943; Gordon, 1981;
77 Krabbendam and Glasser, 2011; Lane et al., 2015, Krabbendam et al., 2017), and the
78 relationship between pre-existing fractures and quarrying has also been modelled theoretically
79 (Iverson, 2012, Hooyer et al., 2012, Anderson, 2014). Geological data (e.g. measurements of
80 concentrations of cosmogenic ^{10}Be in glacial polish and bedrock fracture spacing) suggest that
81 the distance between fractures in the rock are particularly important (Dühnforth et al., 2010).
82 Quarried surfaces and major joint sets are often coincident (Hooyer et al., 2012). This is
83 because the relative importance of abrasion and quarrying as geomorphic agents, and therefore
84 bed roughness, is controlled by fracture spacing (Iverson, 2012; Anderson, 2014). Hardness
85 and joint spacing also exert a strong control on subglacial erosional landforms and the
86 mechanisms that form them (Krabbendam and Glasser, 2011).

87

88 Sugden et al. (1992) suggested that quarrying is also enhanced at the edge of a receding or
89 thinning ice sheet, partly because of the changing relationship here between ice velocity and
90 effective pressure. They argued that ice is thinner close to the margin and the normal load is
91 lower, so cavities are likely to be more abundant and there is higher meltwater production.
92 Assuming the ice is actively flowing, it becomes easier for overriding ice to dislodge and
93 evacuate blocks close to an ice margin. These blocks often travel only short distances (metres)
94 and their provenance can be traced to proximate source locations, further supporting the notion
95 that an intense episode of quarrying accompanies deglaciation (Sugden et al., 2019). In
96 numerical experiments, Ugelvig et al. (2018) also considered that meltwater variability
97 enhances quarrying the most where there is a flat bed and thick ice, while abrasion is more
98 sensitive to the variations in their steeper bed, thinner ice experiment. They observed that

99 quarrying is most sensitive to variations in effective pressure, which are greatest in the thick-
100 ice experiments, while larger variations in sliding speed boosts abrasion the most in the
101 experiment with the steeper bed. Alley et al. (2019) noted that rapid, sustained bedrock erosion
102 requires till removal at the ice/bed interface by sediment transport in subglacial streams.

103

104 Studies of subglacial erosive processes generally focus on temperate/wet basal conditions
105 because these promote sliding. It is generally held that cold or polythermal ice masses
106 characterized by frozen bed conditions preclude such processes and act to protect their
107 substrates and indeed, may even shield inherited pre-glacial landscapes. In recent decades, this
108 view has been challenged both from process-glaciological and glacial geomorphological
109 perspectives (e.g., Cuffey et al., 2000; Atkins et al., 2002; Atkins, 2013). Direct observation of
110 active subglacial sediment entrainment under thermal conditions of $-17\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ recorded in the
111 basal layers of Meserve Glacier in the Dry Valleys, Antarctica, demonstrates that the
112 assumption that cold-based glaciers do not slide and abrade their beds is incorrect (Cuffey et
113 al., 2000). Although rates of subglacial abrasion may be an order of magnitude lower than those
114 observed at warm-based ice masses, these observations suggest that even under prolonged cold-
115 based conditions, given sufficient basal traction, basal sliding and associated erosion will occur.
116 These findings are supported by geomorphological observations from formerly glaciated
117 landscapes in the same region of Antarctica; for example, Atkins (2013) mapped the glacial
118 geomorphological features across the forefield of frozen-based glaciers in the Dry Valleys,
119 Antarctica.

120

121 Here, we address these questions about the styles and relative efficiency of glacial erosion with
122 reference to a palaeo-glaciated bedrock surface at Moel Ysgyfarnogod in the Rhinog
123 Mountains, Wales. We combine detailed analysis of DTM and fine-resolution imagery

124 acquired by Unmanned Aerial Vehicle (UAV) with regional ice flow modelling to investigate
125 the distribution and relative efficacy of abrasion and quarrying processes along with their
126 former subglacial thermal regime across a 60 x 70 m area of the bedrock pavement. Our
127 mapping and analysis of the distribution of geological, geomorphological and glacial
128 characteristics of the Moel Ysgyfarnogod bedrock pavement enables us to qualitatively assess
129 the relative efficacy and spatio-temporal distribution of the subglacial erosional processes
130 operating beneath the ice mass that occupied the Rhinogs during the late Pleistocene. Similar
131 glacial geomorphological mapping studies of bedrock pavements elsewhere in Wales, such as
132 Snowdon (e.g. Sharp et al., 1989), provide additional context for our findings here.

133

134

135 **Study Area**

136 The Rhinog Mountains (*Rhinogydd* in Welsh) are located in North Wales (Figure 1).
137 Geologically they are part of the Harlech Dome, a large anticline composed of Cambrian
138 sandstones and mudstones of the Rhinog Formation and sandstones of the Hafotty Formation
139 (EDINA Geology Digimap, 2014). The latter rock type forms the summit areas of most of the
140 northern Rhinog Mountains, including the highest local summit at Moel Ysgyfarnogod (623 m
141 asl), close to our chosen study site. The Rhinog Mountains were formerly covered by the Welsh
142 Ice Cap, one of the constituent components of the former British-Irish Ice Sheet (BIIS). The
143 Welsh Ice Cap was largely independent of the BIIS, which had its thickest centres over Ireland,
144 England and Scotland. The evidence of the pre-Devensian (pre-LGM) glaciations in
145 Snowdonia has been mostly obliterated by the erosive action of the last Welsh Ice Cap at the
146 LGM (Sharp et al. 1989). However, there are several localities in Britain, such as the Sudbury
147 Formation in the Kesgrave proto-Thames Terrace sequence, with far-travelled erratic material
148 from north Wales, that indicate presence of mountain glaciers and ice caps in the Middle and

149 possibly Early Pleistocene, namely during the Anglian and Wolstonian stages (Lee et al., 2011).
150 Data on the recession of the Welsh Ice Cap are scarce but Glasser et al. (2012) provided eight
151 paired $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$ exposure ages from the Aran mountain summits and established that these
152 summits were exposed at c. 20–17 ka. Thinning of the Welsh Ice Cap after this time was rapid
153 (Hughes et al., 2016).

154

155 The Rhinog Mountains are situated close to the centre of the Welsh Ice Cap at the Last Glacial
156 Maximum (LGM), lying just to the west of the main ice divide (Fearnside 1905; Greenly
157 1919; Ball and Goodier, 1968; Foster 1968, 1970a,b; Addison 1997; Jansson and Glasser 2005;
158 Glasser et al., 2012; Patton et al. 2013a, b). All areas of the mountains above ~550 m asl are
159 dominated by large, gently dipping glacial bedrock pavements with scattered angular and
160 subangular glacially transported boulders (Figure 2). The surface of the bedrock is striated and
161 grooved. On the lower elevation slopes below our study area are glacial meltwater channels.
162 The age of deglaciation is constrained by three cosmogenic isotope exposure ages collected
163 from a bedrock surface and boulder at nearby Moel Ysgyfarnogod at a similar elevation to our
164 study site (Hughes et al., 2016). These are a striated bedrock sample (19.39 ± 0.97 ka) and a
165 paired striated bedrock / boulder sample (20.26 ± 0.96 ka and 17.86 ± 0.81 ka respectively).

166

167 Our plot is located on a flat, near-horizontal striated bedrock surface around 550 m asl
168 ($52^{\circ}53'14''$ N, $3^{\circ}59'46''$ W). The modelled former ice-surface elevation at the LGM was around
169 1000 m asl (Patton et al. 2013a) suggesting the study site lay beneath at least 400 m of ice at
170 the LGM. Our specific study area is a ~70 m by 60 m glacially abraded and quarried rock
171 pavement bounded by 3-5 m high cliffs on all sides (either dropping down or forming a wall
172 above leading to another level of rock pavement).

173

174 **Methods**

175 Digital photographs of the bedrock surface were collected using an Unmanned Aerial Vehicle
176 (UAV; DJI Phantom 4) equipped with a DJI FC300C camera (12 MP resolution) and GPS from
177 c. 4–6 m above the ground surface. ‘Structure-from-Motion’ processing was undertaken in
178 AgiSoft Professional software using standard and documented procedures for applied
179 photogrammetric analysis in glacier and geomorphic studies (e.g., Westoby et al., 2012; Ryan
180 et al., 2015; Jones et al., 2018). In total, 872 photographs were aligned and a dense point cloud
181 was created, containing 254,786,611 points. The dense point cloud was then used to create a
182 high-resolution orthophotograph (pixel size $2.33 \cdot 10^{-3}$ m) and Digital Terrain Model (DTM,
183 $4.67 \cdot 10^{-3}$ m per pixel) from which a slope map was calculated in ArcMap 10.7.3. Geospatial
184 coordinates were taken from the onboard GPS without the need for ground control points.
185 Overlaying our orthophotograph onto georeferenced aerial imagery showed good agreement
186 between the two datasets, with vertical and horizontal offsets no greater than 2 m, and an
187 orientation offset of no more than 2° . In ArcMap we used the orthophotograph and DTM to
188 characterize styles of glacial erosion by manually digitising all major features of glacial erosion
189 on the exposed bedrock surfaces, including glacial grooves and striations, quarried blocks,
190 glacially transported and perched boulders, and bedrock structures such as fractures and joints.
191 Blocks which have clearly toppled or fallen from cliff edges post-glacially around the edges of
192 the plot were not mapped. These toppled blocks are easy to identify because their abraded
193 surfaces are no longer upward-facing. The orientation of grooves, striations, bedrock fractures
194 and joints were calculated using Zonal Geometry as Table statistics in ArcMap. Determination
195 of blocks displacement and topographic profiles was performed in QGIS 3.8.1.

196

197 **Geomorphology Results**

198

199 Based on our DTM analysis, we identify the following five primary components of the
200 glacially-eroded landscape (Figure 3).

201

202 *Striations and grooves*

203 Striations and grooves occur on the upper surfaces of the bedrock across the entire study area,
204 with grooves continuous for distances of up to 4 m (but more typically 2 m, with a mean length
205 of around 0.5 m). Most striations are only a few mm in width and depth, as deduced from the
206 orthophotograph, though grooves several cm wide (and deep) can be discerned from DTM and
207 are particularly well highlighted using slope shading. Overall, 1674 striations were delimited,
208 with a strong east-west preferred orientation (85 - 265 to 110 - 290°) (Figure 4A).

209

210 *Abraded bedrock surfaces*

211 The eastern proximal flank of the bedrock pavement is smoothed, and the cliff edges are
212 rounded and ice-moulded (Figure 5). The cliff edges are intact, although there are a few
213 partially quarried and detached blocks along the cliff edge.

214

215 *Quarried bedrock*

216 The cliff edge on the western distal flank of the bedrock pavement is characterised by quarried
217 blocks and open bedrock joints (Figure 6). Quarried blocks are angular and in places joints and
218 fractures of up to 0.74 m wide and up to 4 m deep are open between individual blocks. The
219 furthest travelled block that we could identify with a high level of confidence by matching to
220 the original cliff face was 1.45 m, and this particular block (near the south cliff edge; Figure 3)
221 was rotated a few degrees from its original orientation as evidenced by striations. Open joints
222 and fractures are visible at distances as far as 25 m inwards of the quarried cliff edge.
223 Vegetation obscures a number of open bedrock joints and fractures where they are filled or

224 partially filled with regolith and soil; these were therefore not delimited. Based on the mapping,
225 the largest reliably quarried blocks have a volume of at least 180 m³ (based on an area of 45
226 m² multiplied by depth of 4 m). This is a conservative estimate, and represents a minimum
227 value because it is based on a maximum fracture depth of 4 m; some fractures were deeper than
228 this but could not be measured beyond 4 m in the field. The volume of quarried or partially
229 quarried bedrock blocks at Moel Ysgyfarnogod at the time of deglaciation is therefore at least
230 2000 m³ (based on the area of rock pavement with open joints, measuring 50 x 10 m with a
231 depth of at least 4 m).

232

233 *Glacially transported boulders*

234 The surface of the rock pavement is littered with perched cobbles and boulders of presumed
235 glacial origin (Figure 3). Although they are similar lithology to the bedrock pavement itself,
236 the boulders are typically subrounded or subangular and display evidence of subglacial
237 abrasion. There are also occasional angular boulders, which appear to have been moved only
238 short distances. It is possible that these angular boulders have moved only within the local
239 vicinity after being plucked upwards from the bedrock pavement nearby.

240

241 *Bedrock joints and fractures*

242 Mapped bedrock joints and fractures show an overall NE-SW orientation. Detailed
243 measurements reveal a slightly more complicated picture of a multimodal distribution with
244 three consistent orientations 25–205°, 40–220° and 60–240° (Figure 4B). The orientation of
245 bedrock joints and fractures contrasts with the orientation of the mapped striations and grooves,
246 which have a strong preferred east-west orientation (Figure 4A).

247

248

249 **Interpretation and Discussion**

250

251 Well-developed striations and grooves are present across the entire surface of the bedrock
252 outcrop, but quarried surfaces are restricted to the down-ice (lee) side of the bedrock at Moel
253 Ysgyfarnogod. The distribution of abraded and quarried surfaces therefore fits existing glacial
254 erosion theory, which predicts that ice-moulded and abraded surfaces should dominate the up-
255 ice (stoss) side of bedrock outcrops and quarrying should dominate the down-ice (lee) side of
256 bedrock outcrops. The overall distribution of the abraded and quarried surfaces is therefore
257 consistent with an inferred ice movement direction across the study area from approximately
258 east to west, and reflects relatively stable and long-term ice maximum conditions of the LGM
259 (Foster, 1970a; Sharp et al. 1989).

260

261 There is a strong relationship between quarrying of blocks and bedrock structure at Moel
262 Ysgyfarnogod. Quarrying, and the subsequent movement of large blocks, is strongly linked to
263 the structure of the bedrock, especially the joints and fractures, which collectively define lines
264 of weakness; open joints are visible in the bedrock at distances of up to 25 m from the quarried
265 cliff edge. Blocks were thus moved mainly to the southwest, despite the general ice flow
266 direction from east to west. The consistent west to east alignment of the striations and grooves
267 (median azimuth = 99–279°) indicates ice flow was orthogonal to the bedrock fractures and
268 joints (median azimuth = 37–217°), which may have enhanced bedrock quarrying (Jahns, 1943;
269 Gordon, 1981; Krabbendam and Glasser, 2011; Hooyer et al., 2012; Iverson, 2012; Anderson,
270 2014; Lane et al., 2015; Krabbendam et al., 2017).

271

272 Based on a best-match of the edges of quarried blocks to their source-location in the adjoining
273 cliff (akin to fitting jigsaw-pieces), we determined the displacement vector (distance and

274 direction) of the centroid of each of the blocks (Figure 6). The predominant displacement vector
275 was to the southwest (mean = 225°), i.e., slightly offset from the overall direction of ice flow
276 but aligned with the orientation of bedrock joints and fractures. However, on the proximal side
277 of the cliff, the travel direction is mostly eastward, and follows the general slope gradient.
278 Postglacial, paraglacial or gravitational influences cannot be completely excluded, though this
279 is only likely to apply to smaller blocks. Large blocks on the west side around the Area 2 will
280 be less affected by postglacial, paraglacial or gravitational influences since the overall bedrock
281 surface is approximately level (Figure 5). The mean distance of displaced blocks that can be
282 matched with confidence to the source cliff is 0.29 m. There is also a clear relationship between
283 bedrock joint and fracture orientations and the displacement of the quarried blocks, visible in
284 Figs 4 and 6 (Dühnforth et al., 2010; Hooyer et al., 2012).

285

286 The analysis can be used to illuminate the relative efficacy of quarrying versus abrasion at the
287 study site. It has been argued that abrasion dominates other subglacial erosional processes
288 beneath fast-flowing glaciers (Herman et al., 2015; Yanites and Ehlers, 2016). At Moel
289 Ysgyfarnogod, however, it is apparent that quarrying was the most important process. We have
290 identified a number of large blocks that appear to have been in the process of being rotated
291 away or dislodged from the bedrock outcrop. Given the freshness of these quarried surfaces we
292 assume that quarrying took place during deglaciation, coeval with ice thinning and retreat,
293 although it is of course possible that the quarried surface pre-date deglaciation. The timing of
294 the glacial erosion is discussed below. The volume of bedrock quarried at Moel Ysgyfarnogod
295 at the time of deglaciation is high; at this bedrock pavement alone, the volume of quarried or
296 partially quarried bedrock blocks bounded by open joints is equivalent to at least 2000 m³.
297 Given an approximate bulk density of sandstone of 2300 kg m³, we estimate that ~4600 tonnes

298 of rock was subglacially quarried and subsequently displaced by the overriding ice during
299 deglaciation.

300

301 We infer that subglacial bedrock quarrying was active during a phase characterised by warm
302 basal conditions with an abundant supply of meltwater. We speculate that this transition from
303 cold to temperate/warm basal conditions was coincident with final phases of deglaciation, as
304 the Welsh Ice Cap thinned and retreated locally due to enhanced atmospheric temperatures.
305 Such a scenario is consistent with studies demonstrating rapid thinning of the ice cap after c.
306 20 ka (Hughes et al., 2016). Enhanced quarrying during deglaciation beneath thinning ice is
307 also likely because this favours the formation of subglacial cavities as well as rapid and high
308 magnitude short-term fluctuations in subglacial water pressure under enhanced temperatures
309 and associated rainfall events (e.g., Doyle et al., 2015).

310

311 This interpretation is further supported by numerical modelling of the Welsh Ice Cap which
312 demonstrates that even though persistent thick ice cover was present at the site, it was at the
313 pressure melting point for a short period of ~1000 years coincident with final deglaciation
314 (Patton et al., 2013a, b) (Figure 7). Given that the bedrock pavement demonstrates extensive
315 glacial erosion under predominantly warm-based conditions, it follows that intense glacial
316 erosion must have been active over a short time-span. If so, this implies that a late phase of
317 quarrying accompanied deglaciation as the Welsh Ice Cap thinned locally over this area.
318 Nearby cosmogenic exposure ages constrain deglaciation to a minimum age of 20 ka (Hughes
319 et al., 2016).

320

321 Regional modelling of the outlet glacier dynamics of the Welsh Ice Cap that drain into Cardigan
322 Bay and Irish Sea support this proposition (Patton et al., 2013c). Early debuttressing of the

323 western ice margin after retreat of the Irish Sea ice stream gave westward-draining outlet
324 glaciers of the Welsh Ice Cap the space to temporarily readvance into Cardigan Bay during
325 episodes of climatic warming with increasingly maritime conditions associated with Heinrich
326 Stadial 1 (Figure 8). We speculate that the quarrying and transportation of blocks at Moel
327 Ysgyfarnogod likely occurred during these short but intense phases of glacial readvance, fast-
328 flow and interior draw-down when favourable ice conditions (thin ice, abundant meltwater,
329 subglacial cavity formation, rapid sliding) dominated. The modelled flow regime demonstrates
330 that glacial motion across the Rhinogs during the latter stages of glaciation (Heinrich 1) was
331 orientated from the northeast to southwest, and became increasingly topographically
332 constrained as regional ice was drawn-down and thinned. These results are consistent with the
333 direction of palaeo ice flow determined from block displacement at our field-site at Moel
334 Ysgyfarnogod.

335

336 This scenario suggests that the subglacial abrasion processes that gave rise to the ice-moulded
337 features observed at Moel Ysgyfarnogod are likely to have preceded the episode of intense
338 quarrying during final stages of deglaciation. Detailed examination of the glaciated pavement
339 provides support for this scenario because we find evidence of ice-moulded and rounded blocks
340 that are detached and displaced yet in which striations and general morphology match their
341 adjacent upstream bedrock. Our analysis tantalizingly lends support for the proposition that at
342 least some fraction of the observed abrasion could have been sustained under frozen subglacial
343 conditions prevalent at the site throughout the majority of the last glacial (Cuffey et al., 2000;
344 Atkins et al., 2002; Atkins, 2013). However, without further cosmogenic exposure analysis of
345 these erosion surfaces (e.g., Glasser et al., 2012), such a proposition cannot be verified.

346

347 Finally, we note the value of our UAV data for palaeo-glaciological studies of this kind. UAV
348 survey enabled the creation a sub-centimetre resolution DTM, while covering a relatively large
349 study site. This demonstrates the potential for UAV and SfM techniques for glacial-
350 geomorphological studies at the intersection between sub-millimetre-scale investigations of
351 individual smaller outcrops such as weathering (Verma and Bourke, 2019), and larger-scale
352 monitoring of glaciers and (peri-)glacial environments (Ryan et al., 2015; Piermattei et al.,
353 2016; Groos et al., 2019).

354

355

356 **Conclusions**

- 357 1. The distribution of abraded and quarried surfaces at Moel Ysgyfarnogod confirms
358 existing glacial erosion theory with ice-moulded and abraded surfaces dominating the
359 up-ice proximal side of the bedrock outcrop and quarrying dominating the down-ice
360 distal side of the bedrock outcrop.
- 361 2. Glacial quarrying shows a strong relationship with bedrock structure; large blocks are
362 detached and partially detached along pre-existing fracture and joint sets.
- 363 3. There is evidence that glacial quarrying can rapidly remove large amounts of bedrock;
364 we estimated the volume of bedrock that was in the process of being quarried at the
365 time of deglaciation at this one site alone to be equivalent to at least 2000 m³.
- 366 4. We propose that quarrying dominated during a phase of warm-basal conditions with
367 plentiful meltwater supply, presumably during final phases of deglaciation as the local
368 ice cap thinned and the subglacial conditions required for quarrying (thin ice, rapid
369 sliding, abundant meltwater, cavity formation) were fulfilled.

370

371 **Acknowledgements**

372 MR's contribution was supported by the Masaryk University project MUNI/A/1356/2019 and
373 Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports of the Czech Republic projects LM2015078 and
374 CZ.02.1.01/0.0/0.0/16_013/0001708. AH and HP acknowledge support by the Research
375 Council of Norway through its Centre of Excellence funding scheme (grant 223259) and HP
376 the Akademia Programme at Equinor.

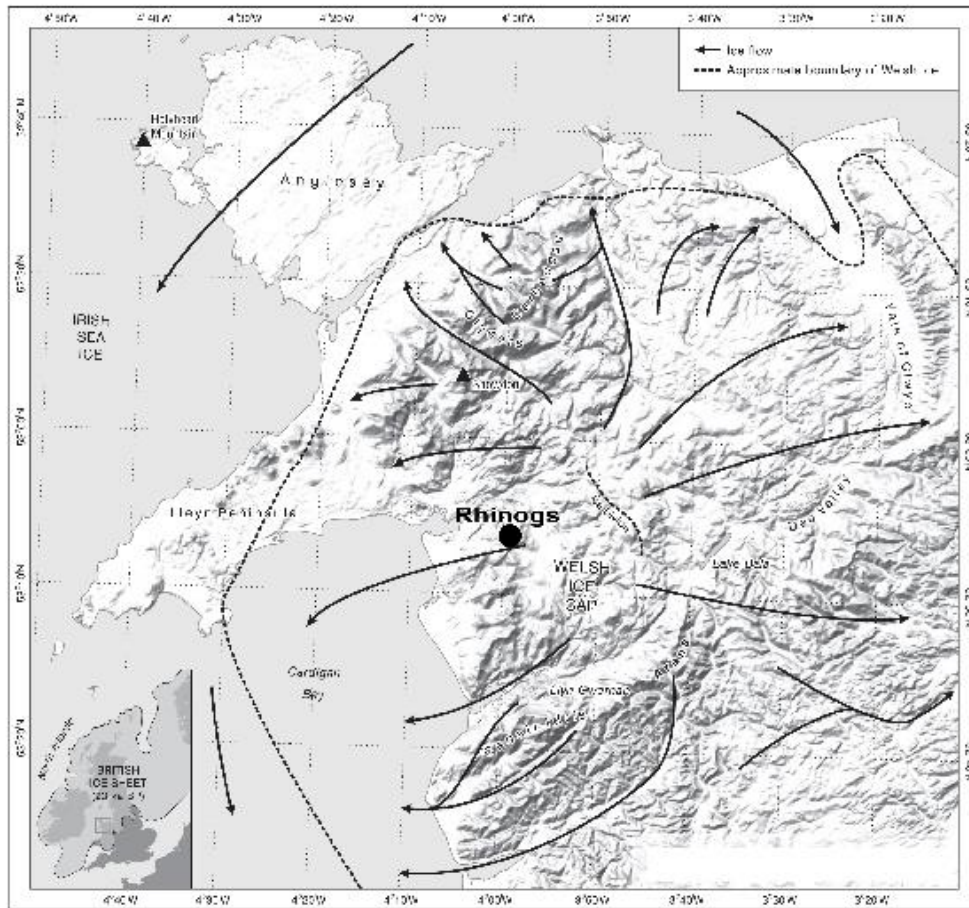
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380

381 **Figures**



382

383 Figure 1. Overview map of North Wales including the Rhinog Mountains, showing the

384 location of the study area with respect to the former British-Irish Ice Sheet (inset) and the

385 Welsh Ice Cap (adapted from Hughes et al., 2016).

386

387

388



389

390

391 Figure 2 (A). Glacially eroded bedrock surface at Moel Ysgyfarnogod showing abraded
392 bedrock pavement with striations and grooves and perched glacially transported boulders.

393 Note the striations and grooves cross-cut the bedrock joints.

394

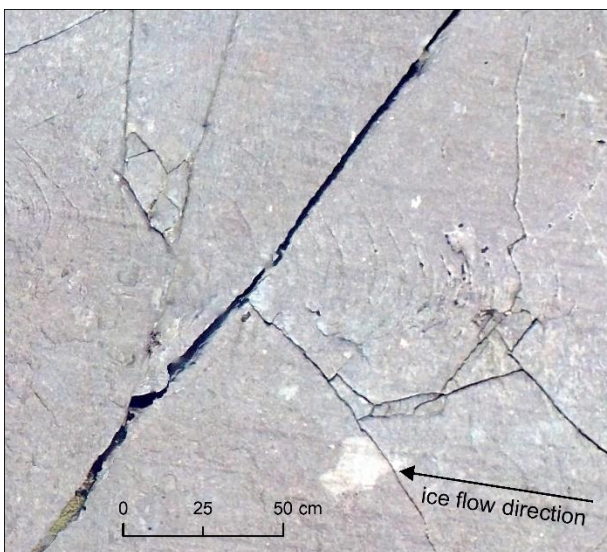


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397 Figure 2(B). Glacially eroded bedrock surface at Moel Ysgyfarnogod showing both partially
398 open and fully open joints with detached, quarried blocks. Former ice flow was from right to
399 left.

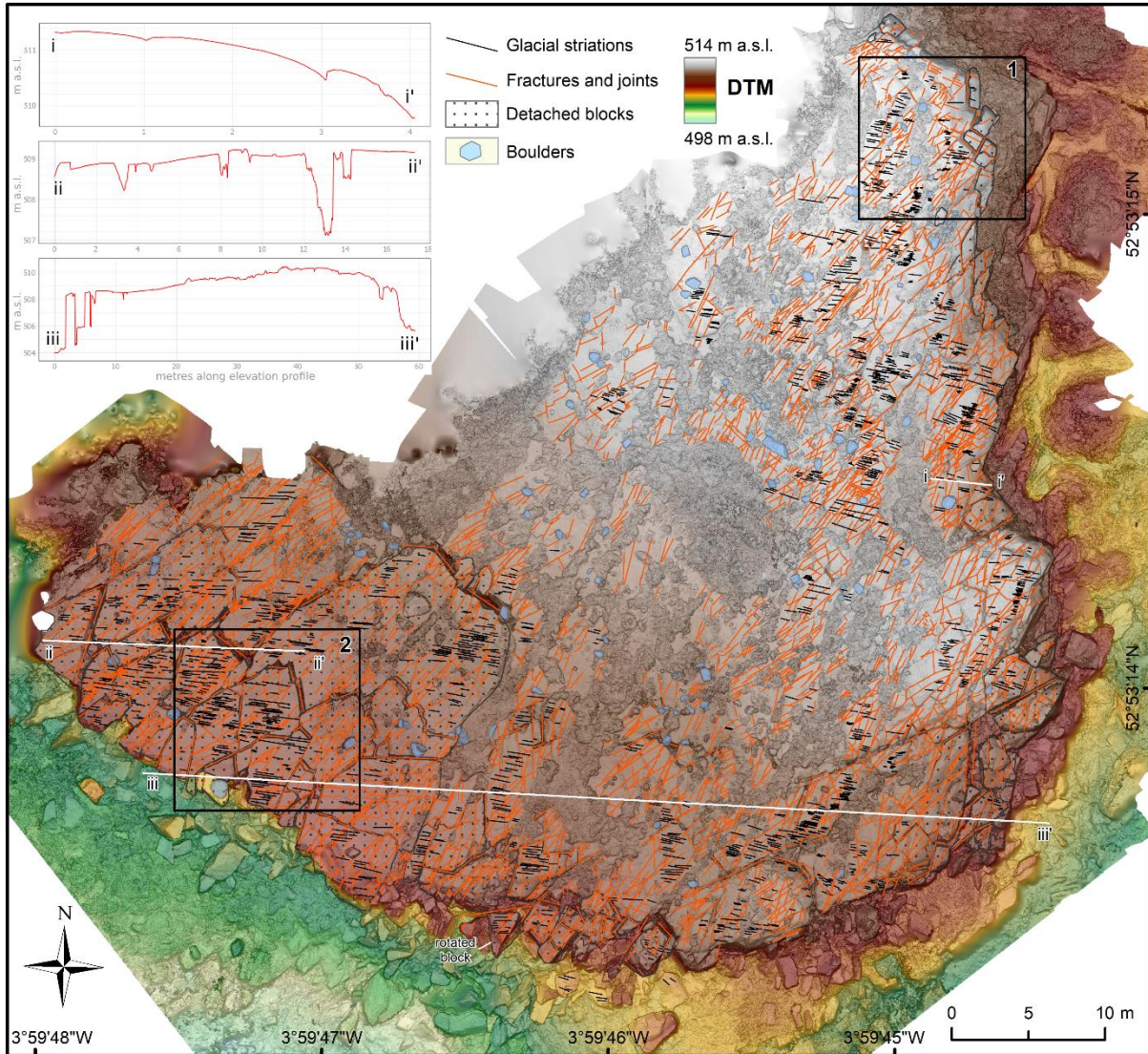
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402 Figure 2(C). Chatter marks/crescentic fractures (centre of image) were observed on UAV
403 photos made during a test flight on an outcrop 30 m northwest from the study site.

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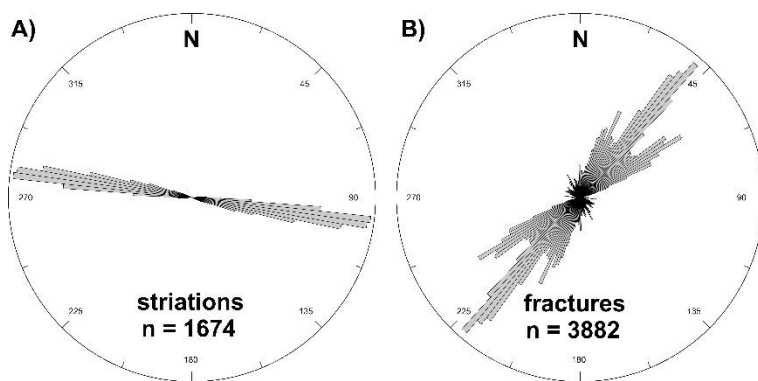


405

406 Figure 3. Digital Terrain Model of the glacially eroded bedrock surface derived from the
407 UAV survey at Moel Ysgyfarnogod. Former ice flow direction across the bedrock surface
408 (indicated by striations and grooves) is east to west. Note that the area dominated by large
409 detached blocks is located on the western (distal) side of the outcrop. Three topographic
410 profiles are shown in the upper left corner and marked by small roman ciphers in the map.
411 Inset boxes show Area 1 and 2 described in detail in the text and shown in Figure 5. Area 1
412 and Profile i-i' represent the ice-moulded, abraded bedrock on the eastern, proximal side of

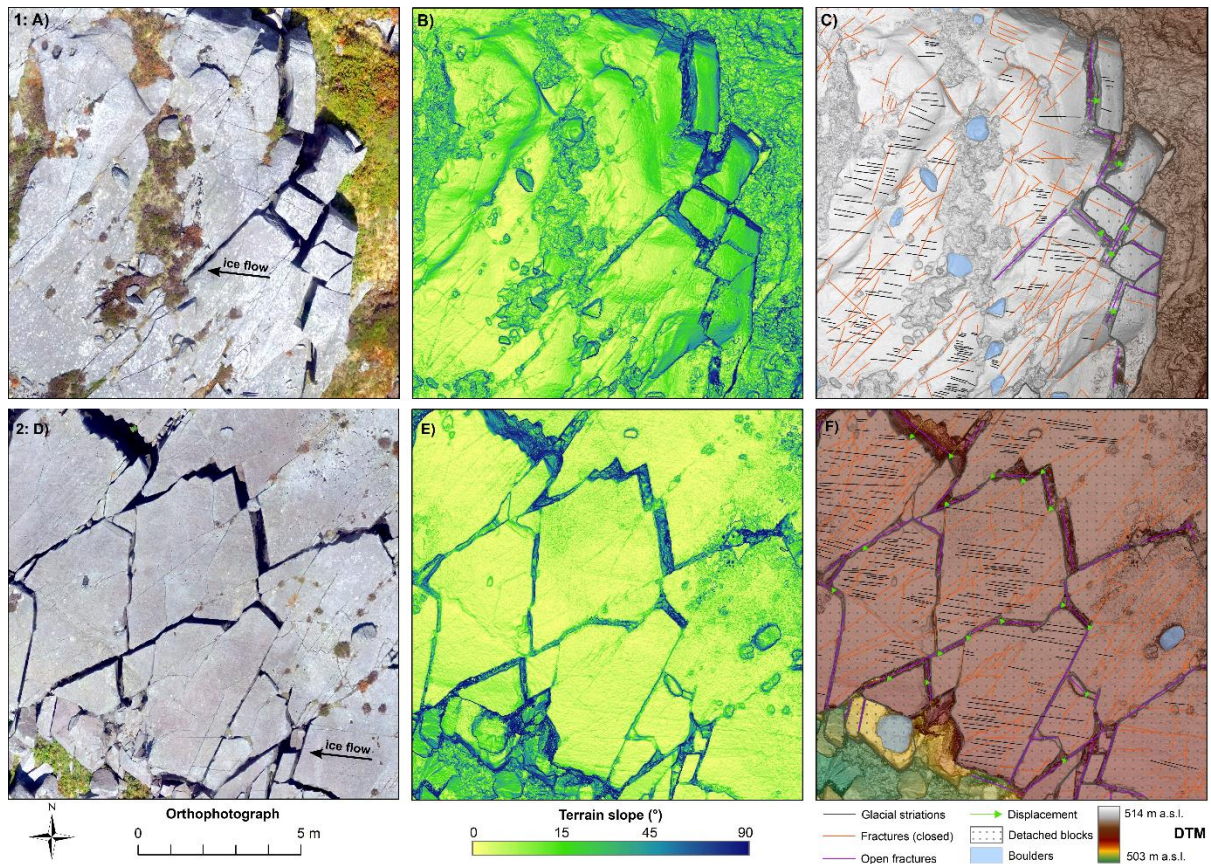
413 the outcrop, whereas Area 2 and Profile ii-ii' is the quarried bedrock on the western, lee side
414 of the outcrop. Profile iii-iii' runs over the length of the entire outcrop. Note also the large,
415 open fractures up to 4 m in depth on the quarried lee side of the outcrop (visible in the
416 profiles). The volume accounted for by quarried or partially quarried bedrock blocks in this
417 area amounts to more than 2000 m³ (the area bounded by open joints of 50 x 10 m with a
418 depth of at least 4 m).

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Figure 4. Stereo plots showing (A) the orientation of 1674 measured striations and grooves,
and (B) the orientation of 3882 measured bedrock fracture and joint orientations at Moel
Ysgyfarnogod. Note the consistent west to east alignment of the striations and grooves
(median azimuth = 99–279°), which is orthogonal to the bedrock fracture and joint
orientations (median azimuth = 37–217°).



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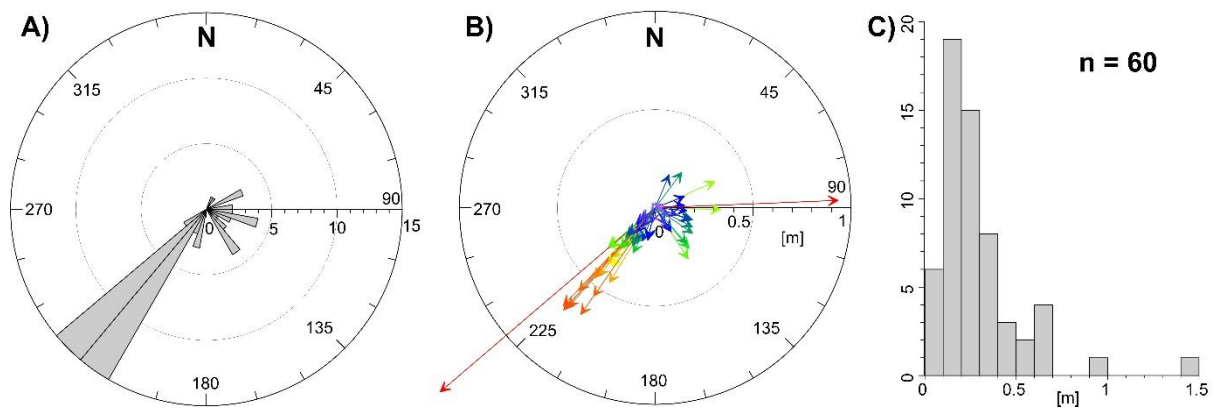
434 Figure 5. Detail of Area 1, the ice-moulded, abraded bedrock on the eastern side of the
 435 outcrop at Moel Ysgyfarnogod, and Area 2, the quarried bedrock on the western side. Both
 436 Areas 1 and 2 are indicated on Figure 3. Former ice-flow direction is indicated in (A) and
 437 (D). A, D) orthophoto, B, E) terrain slope, C, F) mapped bedrock features including striations
 438 and grooves, glacially transported boulders, bedrock fractures and detached blocks with
 439 inferred direction of displacement. Note the size of the detached blocks in panels D to F
 440 (dimensions of up to 5 m), which appear to have been in the process of being quarried during
 441 deglaciation. The small blocks in the upper right of panels A to C are inferred to be detached
 442 as the result of post-glacial periglacial/paraglacial processes.

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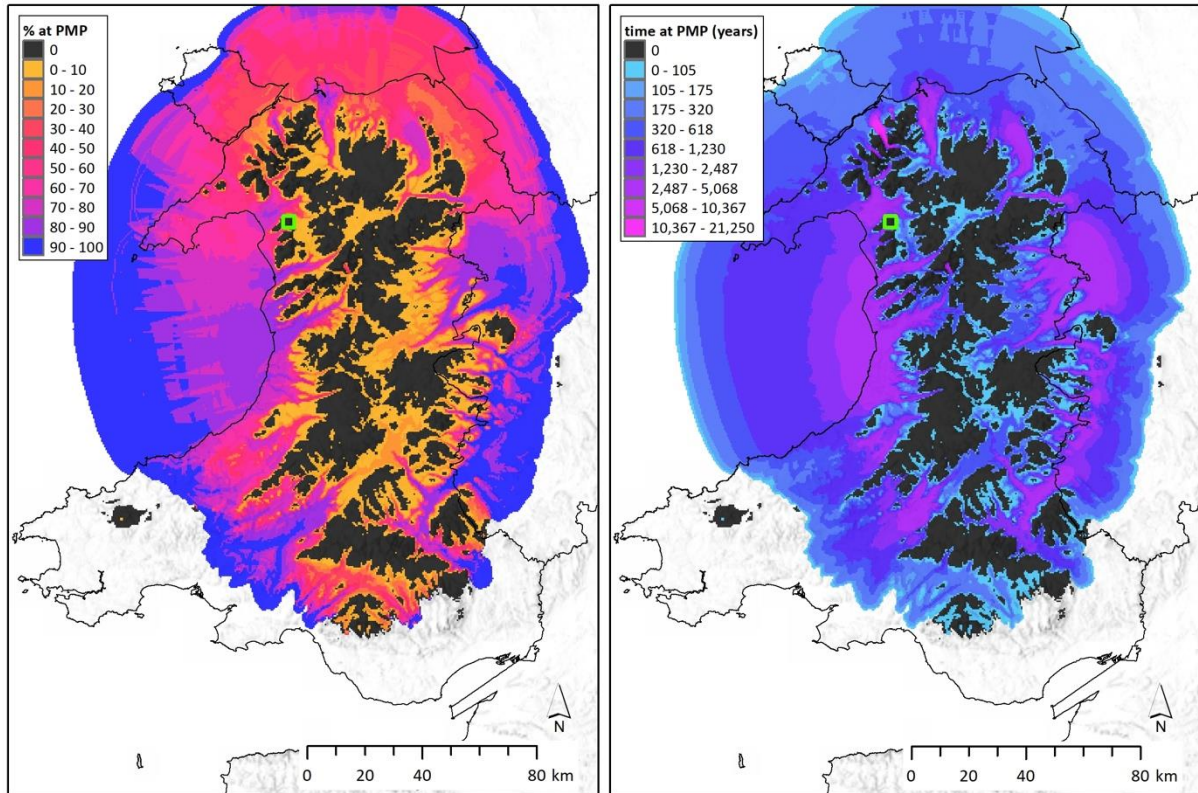
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462 Figure 6. Quantitative information for 60 reliably measured quarried blocks at Moel
463 Ysgyfarnogod. (A) Stereo plot histogram showing measured direction of displacement of
464 quarried blocks. (B) Distance of displacement expressed as vectors in m. (C) Histogram

465 showing the frequency of distance of displacement (in m); the median and mean
466 displacement distance was 0.21 m and 0.29 m, respectively.

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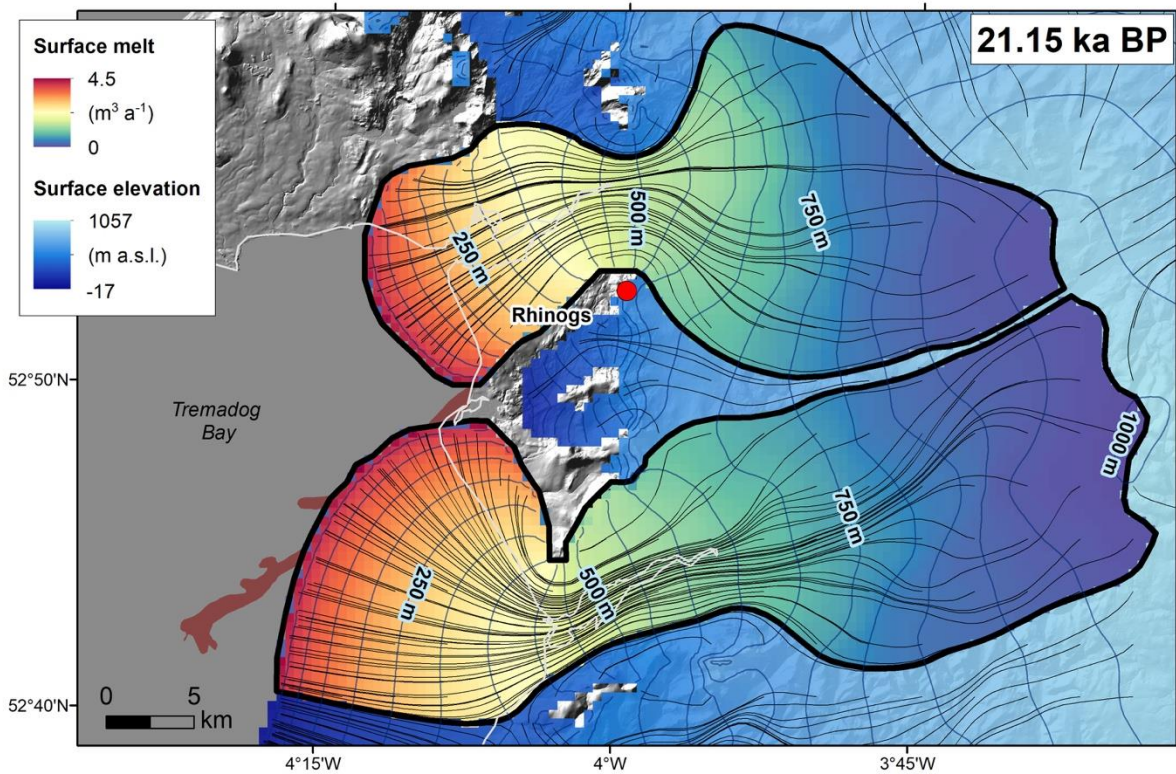
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471 Figure 7. Results of numerical modelling of the Welsh Ice Cap showing the percentage time
472 (left panel, in %) and total time (right panel, in years) when the basal ice was at the pressure
473 melting point (PMP). Modified from Patton et al. (2013a, b). The position of the Rhinogs
474 study area is indicated by the green box in North West Wales.

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479 Figure 8: Results of numerical ice-sheet modelling that indicate the Welsh Ice Cap
 480 readvanced during deglaciation at 21.15 ka BP after it separated from the Irish Sea Ice Stream
 481 (Patton et al., 2013c). The major glacial catchments highlighted include the Tremadog (N)
 482 and Mawddach (S) glaciers. The position of the Rhinogs study area is indicated by the red
 483 circle.

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